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Canada within the Commonwealth



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The Commonwealth, which embraces a rich variety of races, languages, religions and cultures, is a unique association in which leaders in various fields may, on a level of informality and intimacy, meet to exchange views on a multitude of questions and try to determine what may usefully be done together. In a world that seems in danger of splitting into antagonistic groups based on sectional interests such as ideology, race, region, economic level of development, and religion, the Commonwealth is able to transcend such interests, and so bring a global perspective to bear on matters of concern to all members. The processes for finding workable solutions to resolve international issues was illustrated in 1979 when agreement was reached at the Heads-of-Government Meeting in Lusaka on a method to bring Zimbabwe to independence under majority rule. The Commonwealth, with full endorsement by the United Nations, has carried to successful conclusion the struggle by the people of Zimbabwe for nationhood.

The principles of the association have been clearly defined in the Commonwealth Declaration, issued at the Commonwealth Heads-of-Government Meeting in Singapore in January 1971.¹ This statement of common principles affirmed the belief of Commonwealth members in

the United Nations and its efforts to promote international peace and order; the liberty of the individual and each citizen's inalienable right to participate in creating his society; the evil nature of racial prejudice and discrimination; the principles of human dignity and equality, and the iniquity of colonial domination; the need for the progressive removal of disparities in wealth between different sections of mankind; and the value of the Commonwealth as a means to promote international co-operation. In pursuing these principles, the members of the Commonwealth believe they can provide a constructive example of the multinational approach, which is vital to peace and progress in the modern world.

Commonwealth membership

As the colonies within the British Empire became self-governing and independent, similarities of language, habits, institutional traditions and working methods convinced many national leaders of the value of maintaining some form of association. The fruit of that belief is the modern Commonwealth. The Commonwealth (or Commonwealth of Nations, as it is also called) is a voluntary association of 46 independent countries from six continents and five oceans.² The two most recent members to join the association

on achieving independence were Belize (September 1981) and Antigua and Barbuda (November 1981).

The Commonwealth has several categories of membership — full members, special members, associated states and self-governing territories, and dependent territories. There are 43 full members — comprising Britain and 42 other independent countries formerly under British rule. The three special members, Nauru, Tuvalu and St. Vincent, are independent countries that participate in all pan-Commonwealth and appropriate regional functions, but not in Commonwealth heads-of-government or senior officials meetings. Associated states and self-governing territories and dependent territories can not be full members of the Commonwealth but they may be described as being within the Commonwealth in that they are associated with or are territories of member countries. New members are drawn from associated states and dependencies that may on independence apply to heads of Commonwealth member governments for full membership in the association. Including all of these categories, the Commonwealth covers one quarter of the world's land surface and embraces well over one quarter of its population.

Of the 46 full and special members of the Commonwealth, 21 have

retained a monarchical form of government. Queen Elizabeth II is head of state of Canada and of 16 other member countries. Malaysia has a monarch as head of state who is elected for a five-year term from among themselves by the nine hereditary Malay rulers of West Malaysia. On attaining independence, two members of the Commonwealth, Lesotho and Swaziland, had their paramount chiefs declared king and head of state. The kingdom of Tonga remained a monarchy after Britain relinquished responsibility for the external affairs of that country in 1970. Twenty-five members of the Commonwealth have adopted a republican form of government, but all members recognize Queen Elizabeth as the symbol of their free association, and as such, the head of the Commonwealth.

Associated states and self-governing territories

Associated states and self-governing territories within the Commonwealth are countries that have attained full internal self-government but Britain, and in some instances, New Zealand retains ultimate responsibility for external affairs and defence. The associations are free and voluntary; an associated state may choose independence at any time. In the Caribbean region, St. Christopher-Nevis and Anguilla remain associated

states, and by agreement with Britain, exercise delegated authority over a wide area of external relations. Britain is also responsible for the external affairs of Brunei, a sultanate on the northwest coast of Borneo, and co-operates in arrangements for its defence. Brunei has been protected by Britain since 1888. The Cook Islands and Niue in the South Pacific are self-governing territories associated with New Zealand. The inhabitants of these territories are New Zealand citizens.³

Dependent territories

The 20 remaining colonies and trust territories of Britain and other member countries comprise the dependent territories within the Commonwealth. While they all exercise some degree of self-government, 12 are still dependencies of Britain, 7 of Australia and 1 of New Zealand.⁴

The Commonwealth evolved from the British Empire through a gradual process that began in the nineteenth century. Canada had a significant role in that development and was the forerunner in achieving full responsible self-government and dominion status.

Full responsible self-government was first recommended for the Canadian colonies in 1839 by Lord Durham, who led the inquiry into the causes of the 1836-37 rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada. In his report, Durham suggested that the Imperial government should only maintain authority in those fields considered necessary to maintain imperial unity; these included control of foreign relations, the regulation of commerce, the determination of the constitution and the disposal of public lands. All other powers and functions, including the expenditure of public funds, were to be transferred to the colonial governments, to be exercised by executive councils responsible to elected legislative assemblies, and exercised only so long as they retained the support of the majorities in these assemblies. In 1840 Upper and Lower Canada were united and Durham's recommendations were implemented in stages over the next few years. The acceptance of the Rebellion Losses Bill by the Governor General, Lord Elgin, and the British government in 1849 firmly established the practice of full

responsible self-government in Canada. Subsequently, responsible government with a wide area of local autonomy was extended throughout the British Empire. In 1867, with the passage of the British North America Act, Canada became the first self-governing dominion; Australia achieved dominion status in 1901, New Zealand in 1907, and South Africa in 1909.

The Colonial Conference of 1897 in London was restricted to representatives from Britain and those colonies that possessed responsible government. This marked the emergence of the British Commonwealth, as distinct from the British Empire. At the Colonial Conference of 1907 it was decided that in future these meetings would be called Imperial conferences to reflect the new status of the dominions.⁵

From 1914 to 1939, Canada and other self-governing dominions assumed more and more responsibility for their relations with other countries by a series of agreements and precedents. At Versailles in 1919, the dominions successfully asserted their claim to separate representation at international conferences, and during the 1920s to diplomatic representation in foreign countries. The new relationship was set out in a communique from the Imperial Conference of 1926. Drawing upon the recommendations of the Balfour Re-

port, the communique defined Britain and the dominions as "autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic and external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations". These principles were reaffirmed at the Imperial Conference of 1930 and the Statute of Westminster of 1931 legally established the legislative equality of the dominion parliaments with the British parliament.

Another important decision affecting the development of relations between the dominions and Britain was reached at the Imperial Conference of 1926. The governor general in each of the dominions was to cease being the representative of the British government and become the representative of the monarch. The dominions had maintained high commissioners in London to deal directly with British authorities even prior to the First World War. The first Canadian high commissioner was appointed to London in 1880. After 1926, the British government appointed high commissioners to the dominions. High commissioners gradually assumed a diplomatic identity and functioned as the usual channels of communication between the dominions and the British government.

A significant aspect of the high commissioner's function, which differentiates it from that of an ambassador, is that a high commissioner is accredited to the head of government rather than to the head of state. High commissioners are thus maintained by Commonwealth countries which do not retain the British monarch as their head of state. Today this practice of appointing high commissioners is valued as a reflection of the special relations existing between members of the association, and most Commonwealth countries have now exchanged high commissioners among themselves as well as with Britain.

In part as a result of developments during the Second World War, the movement towards independence in the colonial areas of South and Southeast Asia became inevitable. On August 15, 1947, the Indian subcontinent was divided to create the two sovereign countries of India and Pakistan. A year later, Ceylon (since 1972, Sri Lanka) achieved complete independence.

An important step in the evolution of the modern Commonwealth was taken soon after these countries attained independence. When India decided to become a republic but remain within the Commonwealth, it became clear that common allegiance to the Crown was no longer a suitable criterion for membership in the association. The communique of

the April 1949 Prime Ministers' Meeting expressed the new conception of the role of the British monarch within the Commonwealth — that of a symbol of the free association of its independent member nations, and as such, head of the Commonwealth. This new definition enabled countries to join or to continue as members of the Commonwealth without any strict uniformity of constitutions.

Membership in the Commonwealth increased greatly during the 1960s as most of Africa became independent and all but three of the British African territories (Sudan, British Cameroons, Southern Togoland) decided to remain within the association. This development was important to the evolution of the Commonwealth as it reinforced its multiracial character — a point brought out at the Prime Ministers' Meeting in London in March 1961, when Commonwealth representatives discussed with the assent of the South African leader, racial policies within that country. The reaction by the representatives against the principles of *apartheid* in the new Constitution of South Africa was so strong that the South African prime minister reassessed his government's position within the Commonwealth and later withdrew from the association.

Until its independence following elections in 1980, the means of ob-

taining majority rule in Zimbabwe was a prominent concern of the association. One of the purposes of the Commonwealth Sanctions Committee, established at the Heads-of-Government Meeting in Lagos in January 1966, was to have a regular review of the working of United Nations sanctions against the unilateral declaration of independence by the Rhodesian government and also the special needs that might arise in honouring the Commonwealth's undertaking to aid Zambia when its economy was adversely affected after applying sanctions. In 1976, the Commonwealth extended similar assistance to Mozambique, even though that country was not a member of the Commonwealth.

In serving the world community since 1975, the Commonwealth has enjoyed a high regard and a confidence in its effectiveness in dealing with major political challenges. The Rhodesian issue was resolved after 15 years as a result of the arrangements devised at the Heads-of-Government Meeting in Lusaka that led to the constitutional talks in London to give Zimbabwe its independence. Elections were held under the supervision of a Commonwealth observer group, of which Canada was a member, and were organized as an independent and self-contained operation.

In the wake of its successful observation of the Zimbabwe elections, the Commonwealth provided a nine-man observer group with representatives from Australia, Barbados, Botswana, Britain, Canada, Cyprus, Ghana, India and Sierra Leone. This was the first occasion any international body had ever been asked to observe elections in a sovereign state and it enabled the Commonwealth to make a positive contribution in rebuilding trust among the Ugandan people of the democratic process and thus helped to restore stability in that strife-torn nation and the East-African region as a whole in very difficult circumstances. Again the Commonwealth was able to respond to an urgent request from a member country in a matter of great complexity, the outcome of which was of great concern to the international community.

Throughout this metamorphosis of the Commonwealth, a few countries have either withdrawn from the association or chosen not to become members. Pakistan, the most recent member to leave the Commonwealth, withdrew on January 30, 1972, because of the recognition of Bangladesh (formerly East Pakistan) by several Commonwealth countries. South Africa chose to disassociate itself from the Commonwealth on May 31, 1961. Ireland left the Commonwealth on April 18, 1949, owing to strained relations

with Britain during the previous two decades. The Japanese conquest of Burma during the Second World War increased Burma's wish to attain complete independence from Britain. Unwilling to remain within the Commonwealth association as it then was under the terms of the Balfour Report, Burma chose to become an independent republic outside the association on January 4, 1948.

Nature of Commonwealth association

The essential functions of the Commonwealth may be expressed in two words: consultation and co-operation. As stated in the opening paragraph of the Commonwealth Declaration, Commonwealth governments consult and co-operate in the common interest of their peoples and in the promotion of international understanding and world peace. Members have however, complete freedom to belong to any grouping, association or alliance, or to remain non-aligned. Membership carries no obligation to come to the assistance of another member that may be attacked, though not unnaturally, Commonwealth countries would be seriously concerned about such an occurrence.

Initially, commerce was a strong cohesive factor within the association but with the liberalization of trade on a multilateral basis following the Second World War, the

Commonwealth preference system became progressively less important as a unifying element. Preferential trade with Britain was further affected by Britain's entry into the European Economic Community (EEC) on January 1, 1973.⁶ On a broader scale however, Commonwealth trade links remain important, particularly for the developing countries, and Britain has helped them negotiate terms of association with the EEC intended to help increase their economic prosperity.

The Commonwealth, it should be remembered, is an international association, and not like, for example, the United Nations or the Organization of American States, an international organization. It was not created at any particular time to pursue a particular policy or to resolve any specific problems. Instead, the Commonwealth has evolved gradually in response to individual efforts and initiatives and has undertaken a wide variety of activities and programs at the request of member governments. The Commonwealth has no charter outlining jurisdictions and responsibilities nor has it a structured hierarchy of councils and committees that reach decisions by formal debate and majority vote. It does not have a continuing executive structure but operates largely by consensus.

Commonwealth Secretariat

In 1965, Commonwealth heads of government established the Commonwealth Secretariat to facilitate communication between member governments and to administer programs of co-operation. The Secretariat exemplifies "the spirit of co-operation which animates the Commonwealth". It is staffed by officers from more than 20 countries and its budget is financed by assessments from all member governments. The Secretariat, responsible to Commonwealth governments collectively, is headed by a Secretary-General who has direct access to heads of government. It works to ensure conditions for the exchange of opinions in a friendly, informal and intimate atmosphere, and since its establishment has become the centre for multilateral communication between Commonwealth governments.

The Secretariat also serves as the focal point and link for many of the Commonwealth's functional institutions. Its responsibilities include: facilitating and promoting bilateral and multilateral consultation among members; preparing and circulating papers on international questions of special concern to Commonwealth governments; acting as a link for various specialized Commonwealth institutions; undertaking studies on various subjects in the economic, social, administrative and cultural

fields; and organizing and servicing the many Commonwealth governmental meetings.

Arnold Smith, a Canadian diplomat who was the first Secretary-General of the Commonwealth, held the post for ten years until July 1975. His successor, Shridath S. Ramphal, formerly Foreign Minister and Justice Minister of Guyana, has shown similar dedication.

Commonwealth meetings

The Commonwealth has become increasingly useful for intergovernmental consultation at all levels.⁷ At the topmost level are the Commonwealth heads-of-government meetings, held at two-year intervals. The last such meeting was in Melbourne, Australia from September 30 to October 7, 1981. Other recent meetings have been in Lusaka in 1979, London in 1977, Jamaica in 1975, Ottawa in 1973, Singapore in 1971, London in 1969, and Lagos in 1966.

The number of heads-of-government meetings which have taken place outside London illustrates the decentralized and non-Anglocentric nature of the modern Commonwealth. These are private and confidential meetings of individual government leaders (as opposed to delegations) and are intended primarily to provide the opportunity for discussing current international economic and political issues and other

questions of interest to the leaders, such as comparative techniques of government. The informal and intimate atmosphere of the discussions encourages a forthright exchange of views without posturing or unprofitable debate. For a time there were doubts that this frankness and intimacy could be maintained; the tremendous growth in membership, the reduced familiarity, the disparities in economic development, and the growing importance of regional and other groupings might lead to acrimonious debate with few constructive results. The Ottawa Heads-of-Government Meeting in 1973 quickly dispelled any concerns however, and successfully restored any flexibility and informality that might have been lost.

As follow-up to the work of heads of government, senior officials (usually cabinet secretaries or the equivalent) meet in the intervening years to consider proposals referred to them and to plan for the next heads-of-government meeting. At the first senior officials meeting, held in Ottawa in 1972, delegates drafted a report to governments on procedures and agenda for heads-of-government meetings and considered a new topic — comparative techniques of government — which was suggested by Canada's Prime Minister and was to engage the attention of government leaders in

their subsequent consultations. The most recent meeting of senior officials took place in Nicosia, Cyprus, from November 5 to 7, 1980, when senior officials discussed the outlook for the Commonwealth in the 1980s. At this meeting, the Canadian delegation stressed the link between political and economic issues, the role of the Commonwealth in advancing mutual understanding and consensus on global issues and the need for heads of government to generate the political will essential to resolve world problems.

Heads of government also frequently refer projects to more specialized Commonwealth meetings. At Melbourne in 1981 they recognized the need for a new spirit of international co-operation — a new morality to which the Commonwealth can and must contribute. Discussions focused on the problems of developing countries and how the Commonwealth could assist both in the substance and in the process of North-South issues. In their Melbourne Declaration heads of government reaffirmed their commitment to advance the dialogue between developed and developing countries through prompt and effective means.

At the ministerial level, a number of Commonwealth meetings are held regularly. Finance ministers, for example, confer every year imme-

diately before meetings of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank) to review and discuss recent developments in the international economy. The Canadian Secretary of State for External Affairs attended the 1975 Commonwealth Finance Ministers' Meeting where the new international order was discussed. In addition, there are regular meetings of ministers of law, health and education, as well as meetings of other ministers when circumstances warrant them, such as the meetings of food and agriculture ministers in London in March 1975 which led to the establishment of the Food Production and Rural Development Division of the Commonwealth Secretariat, in Dacca, Bangladesh in February 1981. Officials of Commonwealth governments also confer regularly on a wide variety of technical matters.

Commonwealth functional co-operation

Selected programs of functional co-operation are an important area of Commonwealth activity. Economic assistance for developing members has long been a matter of concern — the Colombo Plan was a Commonwealth initiative arising from consideration of the political and economic problems of South Asia by Commonwealth foreign ministers meeting at Colombo in January 1950. As the scheme for assistance emerged

in the first few months of 1950, non-Commonwealth countries in the area were invited to participate in the Plan in order to ensure economic progress throughout the whole of South and Southeast Asia.

A further step towards practical co-operation for development was taken by heads of government at Singapore in 1971 when they agreed to establish the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation. Developing as well as developed members make voluntary contributions to the CFTC to support its activities in technical assistance, export-development, training and education. Since its establishment the CFTC has sent more than 1,100 experts and consultants, mainly from developing countries, to provide technical assistance to developing countries. It has funded training for more than 10,000 persons from developing countries, almost all in other developing countries. From June 1979 to June 1980, the CFTC began or approved some 400 new projects in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, the Mediterranean and the South Pacific.

Education is another important area of co-operation within the Commonwealth. The operation of the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan is a practical result of this co-operation. From 1960 to 1978, 18,319 Commonwealth scholarships were awarded, chiefly in 13 countries; in 1978-79, the plan made

1,074 awards. In 1973, the heads of government who met in Ottawa approved the establishment of the Commonwealth Youth Program. This program, administered by the Commonwealth Secretariat, provides for bursary and fellowship schemes, youth-service awards and an information centre, and the establishment of regional training centres in Guyana, Zambia and India.

The Commonwealth heads of government who met in London in 1965 agreed to set up the Commonwealth Foundation to administer a fund for fostering and increasing exchanges between professional organizations and societies in Commonwealth countries. The Foundation, financed by Commonwealth governments and managed by an independent board of trustees and a small staff in London, provides financial assistance to encourage representation at conferences, to facilitate the exchange of visits among professional people, and to assist in organizing professional conferences and centres. More recently, the Foundation has encouraged the development of non-governmental associations in several professional fields. During 16 years of operation, its activities have been very successful. Besides giving financial support to the non-governmental associations, the Foundation has helped to create professional centres in several Commonwealth capitals, has provided

bursaries and has financially supported various professional journals. Professional persons and associations in both developed and developing countries benefit from the fund administered by the Commonwealth Foundation.

At their meeting in Lusaka in 1979, heads of government agreed that the Foundation's mandate should be expanded in areas including culture, information, social welfare and rural development. This new mandate will be progressively implemented in line with an over-all reassessment of the Foundation's programs and priorities.

In addition to official Commonwealth institutions and the joint programs of member governments, there are more than 200 active non-governmental Commonwealth organizations operating internationally.⁸

Canadian commitment to the Commonwealth

The Canadian commitment to multi-lateral Commonwealth programs and institutions is reflected in the government's contribution to them of some \$19 million in 1980-81.⁹ This includes Canada's contribution of approximately \$10 million to the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation, as well as large contributions to the Commonwealth Foundation and the Commonwealth Youth Program. The Canadian government has more than doubled its contribution to Commonwealth programs and institutions since 1976. In addition, Canada now provides more than \$330 million a year in bilateral aid to Commonwealth countries as an area of concentration for its development assistance.

The Canadian government has taken its turn as host to a number of Commonwealth conferences: the Senior Officials' Meeting and the Ministerial Telecommunications Conference in 1972, the Heads-of-Government Meeting in 1973 and the Finance Ministers' Meeting in 1974. In 1975, both the Commonwealth Air Transport Council and the Tenth Commonwealth Mining and Metallurgical Conference met in Canada. In June 1976, the Commonwealth Human Ecology Council and the Commonwealth *ad hoc* group for Habitat met in Vancouver before the United Nations Conference on

Human Settlements. The twenty-third Commonwealth Parliamentary Conference was held in Ottawa in September 1977, and the meeting of Commonwealth law ministers in Winnipeg in August the same year. Ottawa also hosted the Fourth Commonwealth Youth Affairs Council Meeting in 1978, the Duke of Edinburgh's Fifth Commonwealth Study Conference on People in an Industrial Society in 1980 and the Fourth General Assembly of the Commonwealth Association of Surveying and Land Economy in September 1981.

Other recent Commonwealth events of interest have been the Senior Officials' Meeting in Kuala Lumpur and Nicosia in 1978 and 1980, the Food and Agricultural Ministers' Meeting in Dacca, Bangladesh in February 1981 and the Eighth Commonwealth Educational Conference held in Sri Lanka in 1980.

Despite doubts voiced from time to time about the value or survival of the Commonwealth, the association has become more meaningful and useful. It has grown in several respects: its membership has increased from a mere half-dozen independent countries in 1957 to 46 as of November 1981; its functional programs have increased steadily and now cover a wide variety of activities; and its orientation has changed from anglocentric to truly multilateral with no predominant

member. Judging from the past, the future portends maintenance and expansion of those activities in which the Commonwealth has proved itself so useful — consultation and selective functional co-operation. Government leaders looked ahead from their 1973 meeting in this belief:

"Heads of Government were convinced that the association had once again demonstrated its vitality and flexibility. They intend to make maximum use of the Commonwealth machinery to put the principles of the Commonwealth Declaration into practice and to accelerate the pace of social and economic development among less affluent members."¹⁰

As Prime Minister Trudeau said at the 1973 meeting in Ottawa:

"The Commonwealth is for many of us our window on the world . . . To contemporary observers and, I am confident, to future historians, the word Commonwealth will be irrevocably associated with the desire of free men and women representing more than a quarter of the world's population to gather, to discuss and to understand . . ."

This "Spirit of Ottawa" was reaffirmed at the 1975 meeting in Jamaica, described by the host prime minister as the "Concord of Kingston". The initiatives of both meetings continued to be carried forward in an outward-looking way. This was apparent at the 1977 Heads-of-Government Meeting in London which reaffirmed the opposition of Commonwealth governments to *apartheid* in sport, and again at the 1979 Heads-of-Government Meeting in Lusaka, which declared the intention to work collectively for the eradication of all forms of racism and racial prejudice.

Arnold Smith, the distinguished Canadian diplomat and first Commonwealth Secretary-General, told the heads of government at their meeting in 1975, "the Commonwealth has changed greatly over the years and has become increasingly relevant to the problems of world politics . . .".

Footnotes

- 1 The text of the Declaration appears as Appendix D.
- 2 A list of full and special members appears as Appendix A.
- 3 A list of associated states and self-governing territories appears as Appendix B.
- 4 A list of dependencies, showing their relations to a metropolitan power, appears as Appendix C.
- 5 A list of conferences and prime ministers' and heads-of-government meetings appears as Appendix E.
- 6 On entry into the European Economic Community, the British government renounced the Canada —U.K. Trade Agreement, which removed Canadian preferential access to the British market. Canada has begun to phase out preferential access to the Canadian market to goods from Britain and Ireland. Preferential treatment has been exchanged with Australia and New Zealand, and goods from developing Commonwealth countries have preferential access to Canadian markets.
- 7 A partial list of Commonwealth groups who meet regularly and funded institutions appears as Appendix F.
- 8 A partial list of these appears as Appendix G.
- 9 Canada's contributions to Commonwealth programs and institutions appears as Appendix H.
- 10 Commonwealth Heads-of-Government Meeting, Ottawa 1973: excerpt from the final communique.

APPENDICES

Commonwealth countries: full and special members

Members of the Commonwealth (or Commonwealth of Nations — the prefix British before Commonwealth is no longer used) include Britain and those independent sovereign countries formerly governed by Britain that have chosen to become members. Nauru, Tuvalu and St. Vincent, which became independent in 1968, 1978 and 1979 respectively, are special members of the Commonwealth who participate in all functional meetings and activities and are eligible for Commonwealth technical assistance but do not take part in meetings of Commonwealth heads of government

Member countries	Area (sq. kilometers/sq. miles)		Population	Capital	Type of government*	Date of membership
	sq. kilometers	sq. miles				
Antigua and Barbuda	279	108	75,000	St. John's	M	November 1, 1981
Australia	7,686,884	2,967,909	14,420,000	Canberra	M	January 1, 1901
The Bahamas	13,934	5,380	220,000	Nassau	M	July 10, 1973
Bangladesh	142,776	55,126	81,219,000	Dacca	R	April 18, 1972
Barbados	429	166	248,000	Bridgetown	M	November 30, 1966
Belize	22,965	8,867	145,000	Belmopan	M	September 21, 1981
Botswana	569,800	220,000	728,000	Gaborone	R	September 30, 1966
Britain	130,437	50,362	55,932,000	London	M	
Canada	9,976,185	3,851,809	24,000,000	Ottawa	M	July 1, 1867
Cyprus	9,251	3,572	644,000	Nicosia	R	March 13, 1961
Dominica	751	290	77,000	Roseau	R	November 3, 1978
Fiji	18,316	7,072	589,000	Suva	M	October 10, 1970
Gambia	10,367	4,003	554,000	Banjul	R	February 18, 1965
Ghana	238,539	92,100	10,634,000	Accra	R	March 6, 1957
Grenada	344	133	105,000	St. George's	M	February 7, 1974
Guyana	214,970	83,000	817,000	Georgetown	R	May 26, 1966
India	3,268,103	1,261,816	631,726,000	New Delhi	R	August 15, 1947
Jamaica	10,989	4,243	2,101,000	Kingston	M	August 6, 1962
Kenya	582,646	224,960	14,614,000	Nairobi	R	December 12, 1963
Kiribati	683	264	55,000	Tarawa	R	July 12, 1977

Lesotho	30,344	11,716	1,250,000	Maseru	October	4,1966
Malawi	118,484	45,747	5,597,000	Lilongwe	July	6,1964
Malaysia	336,700	130,000	12,961,000	Kuala Lumpur	August	31, 1957
Malta	243	94	333,000	Valletta	September	21, 1964
Mauritius	2,084	805	906,000	Port Louis	March	12, 1968
* * Nauru	20	8	7,000	Nauru	January	31, 1968
New Zealand	268,676	103,736	3,148,000	Wellington	September	26, 1907
Nigeria	923,772	356,669	78,982,000	Lagos	October	1, 1960
Papua New Guinea	461,693	178,260	2,857,000	Port Moresby	September	16, 1975
St. Lucia	616	238	118,000	Castries	February	22, 1979
* * St. Vincent	388	150	103,000	Kingstown	October	27, 1979
Seychelles	442	171	62,000	Victoria	June	29, 1976
Sierra Leone	72,325	27,925	3,210,000	Freetown	April	27, 1961
Singapore	582	225	2,319,000	Singapore	October	15, 1965
Solomon Islands	29,785	11,500	205,000	Honiara	July	7, 1978
Sri Lanka	65,609	25,332	14,097,000	Colombo	February	4, 1948
Swaziland	17,565	6,782	511,000	Mbabane	September	6, 1968
Tanzania	939,703	362,820	16,363,000	Dar-es-Salaam	December	9, 1961
Tonga	745	288	92,000	Nuku'Alofa	June	4, 1970
Trinidad and Tobago	5,128	1,980	1,118,000	Port of Spain	August	31, 1962
* * Tuvalu	25	10	10,000	Funafuti	October	1, 1978
Uganda	235,690	91,000	12,049,000	Kampala	October	9, 1962
Vanuatu	15,669	6,050	100,000	Port Vila	July	30, 1980
Western Samoa	1,126	435	154,000	Apia	August	28, 1970
Zambia	752,620	290,587	5,128,000	Lusaka	October	24, 1964
Zimbabwe	390,623	150,820	6,683,000	Salisbury	April	18, 1980
Total	27,569,305	13,612,437	1,007,266,000			

Total Commonwealth membership as of November 1981: 46

* M : Monarchy under Queen Elizabeth
* R : Republic

* NM : National Monarchy
** Special member

APPENDIX B

Associated states and self-governing territories

Associated states and self-governing territories can not be full members of the Commonwealth but they may be described as being within the Commonwealth in that they are associated with member countries.

	Area (sq. kilometers/sq. miles)		Population	Date of status
<i>Associated states of Britain</i>				
Anguilla	90	35	6,500	1975
St.-Christopher (St. Kitts)-Nevis	261	101	57,000	1967
<i>British protected state</i>				
Brunei	5,765	2,226	213,000	1888
<i>New Zealand self-governing territories</i>				
Cook Islands	230	89	18,112	1965
Niue	259	100	6,000	1974
Total	6,605	2,551	300,612	

Dependent territories

Dependent territories, in view of their affiliation with member countries, are considered as being within the Commonwealth.

Name	Dependency of	Area		Population
		(sq. kilometers/sq. miles)		
Ashmore and Cartier Islands	Australia	5	2	
Australia Antarctic Territory	Australia	6,043,153	2,333,264	
Bermuda	Britain	51	20	63,000
British Antarctic Territory	Britain	1,295,000	500,000	100
British Indian Ocean Territory	Britain	54,390	21,000	2,000
British Virgin Islands	Britain	152	59	10,484
Cayman Islands	Britain	259	100	16,000
Christmas Island	Australia	134	52	3,094
Cocos (Keeling) Islands	Australia	12	5	435
Coral Sea Islands	Australia	2	1	
Falkland Islands and dependencies	Britain	12,173	4,700	2,000
Gibraltar	Britain	5	2	29,000
Heard and McDonald Islands	Australia	782	302	
Hong Kong	Britain	1,046	404	4,900,000
Monserrat	Britain	101	39	12,160
Norfolk Island	Australia	33	13	1,900
Pitcairn Island	Britain	2	1	68
St. Helena	Britain	121	47	6,000
Tokeleau	New Zealand	101	39	1,575
Turks and Caicos	Britain	432	166	7,000
Total		7,407,954	2,860,216	5,054,816

APPENDIX D

COMMONWEALTH DECLARATION

Commonwealth Heads' of Government Meeting
Singapore, January 1971

The Commonwealth of Nations is a voluntary association of independent sovereign states, each responsible for its own policies, consulting and co-operating in the common interests of their peoples and in the promotion of international understanding and world peace.

Members of the Commonwealth come from territories in the six continents and five oceans, include peoples of different races, languages and religions, and display every stage of economic development from poor developing nations to wealthy industrialized nations. They encompass a rich variety of cultures, traditions and institutions. Membership of the Commonwealth is compatible with the freedom of member governments to be non-aligned or to belong to any other grouping, association or alliance.

Within this diversity all members of the Commonwealth hold certain principles in common. It is by pursuing these principles that the Commonwealth can continue to influence international society for the benefit of mankind.

WE BELIEVE that international peace and order are essential to the security and prosperity of mankind; we therefore support the United Nations and seek to strengthen its influence for peace in the world, and its efforts to remove the causes of tension between nations.

WE BELIEVE in the liberty of the individual, in equal rights for all citizens regardless of race, colour, creed or political belief, and in their inalienable right to participate by means of free and democratic political processes in framing the society in which they live. We therefore strive to promote in each of our countries those representative institutions and guarantees for personal freedom under the law that are our common heritage.

WE RECOGNIZE racial prejudice as a dangerous sickness threatening the healthy development of the human race and racial discrimination as an unmitigated evil of society. Each of us will vigorously combat this evil within our own nation. No country will afford to regimes which practise racial discrimination assistance which in its own judgment directly contributes to the pursuit or consolidation of this evil policy. We oppose all forms of colonial domination and racial oppression and are committed to the principles of human dignity and equality. We will therefore use all our efforts to foster human equality and dignity everywhere and to further the principles of self-determination and non-racialism.

WE BELIEVE that the wide disparities in wealth now existing between different sections of mankind are too great to be tolerated; they also create world tensions; our aim is their progressive removal; we therefore seek to use our efforts to overcome poverty, ignorance and disease, in raising standards of life and achieving a more equitable international society. To this end our aim is to achieve the freest possible flow of international trade on terms fair and equitable to all, taking into account the special requirements of the developing countries, and to encourage the flow of adequate resources, including governmental and private resources, to the developing countries, bearing in mind the importance of doing this in a true spirit of partnership and of establishing for this purpose in the developing countries conditions which are conducive to sustained investment and growth.

WE BELIEVE that international co-operation is essential to remove the causes of war, promote tolerance, combat injustice and secure development amongst the peoples of the world; we are convinced that the Commonwealth is one of the most fruitful associations for these purposes.

In pursuing these principles the members of the Commonwealth believe that they can provide a constructive example of the multinational approach which is vital to peace and progress in the modern world. The association is based on consultation, discussion and co-operation. In rejecting coercion as an instrument of policy they recognize that the security of each member state from external aggression is a matter of concern to all members. It provides many channels for continuing exchanges of knowledge and views on professional, cultural, economic, legal and political issues among member states.

These relationships we intend to foster and extend for we believe that our multinational association can expand human understanding and understanding among nations, assist in the elimination of discrimination based on differences of race, colour or creed, maintain and strengthen personal liberty, contribute to the enrichment of life for all, and provide a powerful influence for peace among nations.

Commonwealth conferences**The evolution of the heads-of-government meeting***Colonial conferences*

1887	London	April 4 - May 9
1894	Ottawa	June 28 - July 9
1897	London	June 24 - July 31
1902	London	June 30 - August 11
1907	London	April 15 - May 14

Imperial conferences

1911	London	May 23 - June 20 (did not take place)
1917	London	April 21 - April 27
1921	London	June 20 - August 5
1923	London	October 1 - November 8
1926	London	October 19 - November 23
1930	London	October 1 - November 14
1932	Ottawa	July 21 - August 20 (Imperial Economic Conference)
1937	London	May 14 - June 15

Prime ministers' meetings

1944	London	May 1 - May 17
1946	London	May 1 - May 23
1948	London	October 10 - October 22
1949	London	April 21 - April 27
1951	London	January 4 - January 12
1953	London	June 3 - June 9
1955	London	January 31 - February 8
1956	London	June 27 - July 6
1957	London	June 26 - July 5
1960	London	May 3 - May 13
1961	London	March 8 - March 17
1962	London	September 10 - September 19
1964	London	July 8 - July 15
1965	London	June 17 - June 21
1966	Lagos	January 11 - January 12

1966	London	September 6 - September 15
1969	London	January 7 - January 15

Heads-of-government meetings

1971	Singapore	January 14 - January 22
1973	Ottawa	August 2 - August 10
1975	Kingston (Jamaica)	April 29 - May 5
1977	London	June 8 - June 16
1979	Lusaka	August 1 - August 7
1981	Melbourne	September 30 - October 7

Commonwealth consultative and co-operative mechanisms*

Commonwealth Heads-of-Government Meeting (biennial)
Senior Officials' Meeting (biennial)
Commonwealth Finance Ministers' Meeting (annual)
Commonwealth Law Ministers' Meeting (biennial)
Commonwealth Conference of Education Ministers (triennial)
Commonwealth Medical Conference (triennial)
Commonwealth Forestry Conference (every five years)
Conference of Commonwealth Postal Administration (biennial)
Commonwealth Educational Liaison Committee
Commonwealth Broadcasting Conference (biennial)
Commonwealth Consultative Space Research Committee
Commonwealth Liaison Committee

Non-governmental

Commonwealth Parliamentary Association (annual)
Commonwealth Magistrates' Conference (biennial)
Commonwealth Press Union Conference (every five years)
Commonwealth Engineering Conference (every four years)
Conference of Commonwealth Universities (every five years)

Government-funded institutions

Commonwealth Secretariat
Commonwealth Advisory Aeronautical Research Council
Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux
Commonwealth Air Transport Council
Commonwealth Book Development Program
Commonwealth Defence Science Organization
Commonwealth Forestry Institute
Commonwealth Foundation
Commonwealth Institute
Commonwealth Legal Advisory Service
Commonwealth Committee on Mineral Processing
Commonwealth Committee on Mineral Resources and Geology
Commonwealth Zimbabwe Scholarship Program
Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan

Commonwealth Scientific Council
Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation
Commonwealth Telecommunications Council
Commonwealth War Graves Commission
Commonwealth Youth Program

* This list is not exhaustive

**Non-governmental associations
and organizations***

Association of Commonwealth Architects
Association for Commonwealth Literature and Language Studies
Association of Commonwealth Students
Association of Commonwealth Universities
Commonwealth Association of Museums
Commonwealth Association of Planners
Commonwealth Association of Surveying and Land Economy
Commonwealth Society for the Deaf
Commonwealth Council of Education Administration
Commonwealth Engineers Council
Commonwealth Federation of Nurses
Commonwealth Geographic Bureau
Commonwealth Legal Bureau
Commonwealth Library Association
Commonwealth Magistrates' Association
Commonwealth Medical Association
Commonwealth Parliamentary Association
Commonwealth Pharmaceutical Association
Commonwealth Press Union
Commonwealth Veterinary Association
Council of Commonwealth Mining and Metallurgical Institutions
Federation of Commonwealth Chambers of Commerce
Royal Commonwealth Society
Royal Overseas League

* This list is not exhaustive

APPENDIX H

Canadian payments to Commonwealth bodies 1980-1981

(1) Commonwealth Secretariat

All members of the association are assessed on the basis of the UN assessment schedule. The highest assessment is 30 per cent for Britain, while 16 members are assessed at the lowest rate of .75 per cent. For 1980-81, Canada's assessed share was 17.8 per cent, or \$1,616,000 out of a budget of \$9,074,000. (External Affairs funds)

(2) Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation

Contributions to this program are voluntary, and are made by all member countries of the Commonwealth. Canada agreed to pay an amount equal to 200 per cent of the pledges made by less-developed members (with a ceiling of \$3 million *per annum*) for a three-year period that began in 1973. This ceiling was passed in 1974-75, and an upward revision to \$4 million was announced at the 1975 Heads-of-Government Meeting. For 1980-81, Canada contributed \$10 million out of a budget of approximately \$23 million. This represents a 40 per cent share of the 1980-81 budget. (CIDA funds)

(3) Commonwealth Foundation

Contributions to this program are voluntary and are made by 37 Commonwealth countries. For 1980-81, Canada contributed \$676,000, representing 32 per cent of the total budget. (External Affairs funds).

(4) Commonwealth Youth Program

Contributions to this program are voluntary and are made by 29 Commonwealth countries. In 1980-81 Canada contributed \$500,000, representing 23 per cent of the program's total budget of \$2,238,000. (External Affairs funds)

(5) Commonwealth Institute

Contributions are voluntary. For 1980-81, Canada contributed \$20,000 towards the maintenance of the Canadian exhibit. (External Affairs funds)

(6) Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan

Awards are granted on a voluntary basis by 15 Commonwealth countries. For the fiscal year 1980-81, Canada contributed \$2.78 million, representing 200 awards. (CIDA funds)

(7) Commonwealth Zimbabwe Scholarship Program

Contributions to the program are voluntary. Canada made a contribution of \$200,000 for the fiscal year 1980-81. (CIDA funds)

- (8) **Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux**
For the fiscal year 1980-81, Canada agreed to contribute \$580,000, representing 20 per cent of a total budget of \$3 million. Voluntary contributions are made by 27 Commonwealth countries. (Department of Agriculture funds)
- (9) **Commonwealth Legal Advisory Service**
Contributions are voluntary. Canada contributed \$10,000 for the fiscal year 1980-81. (CIDA funds)
- (10) **Commonwealth Forestry Institute**
Contributions are voluntary. Canada agreed to contribute a total of \$8,000 for 1980-81. (Department of the Environment funds)
- (11) **Commonwealth Science Council**
Contributions are voluntary and are made by 22 Commonwealth countries. Canada contributed \$94,400 for the fiscal year 1980-81, representing 18 per cent of the total budget. (Ministry of State for Science and Technology funds)
- (12) **Commonwealth Air Transport Council**
Canada contributed \$56,000 in 1980-81, representing 18 per cent of a total budget of \$312,000. Members are assessed for payments on the same scale as for payments to the Commonwealth Secretariat. Thirty-two members of the Commonwealth contribute. (External Affairs funds)
- (13) **Commonwealth Advisory Aeronautical Research Council**
Canada contributed, for the fiscal year 1980-81, \$8,400, representing 26 per cent of the total budget. Eight Commonwealth countries contribute. (National Research Council funds)
- (14) **Commonwealth War Graves Commission**
Canada contributed \$2,630,329 in the fiscal year 1980-81, representing 10 per cent of a total budget of almost \$30 million. Contributions are assessed on the basis of the number of graves to a member. (Department of Veterans Affairs funds)

For the fiscal year 1980-81, the Canadian government, whether through the Department of External Affairs or others, contributed more than \$19 million to the above Commonwealth bodies. This is exclusive of the Canadian contributions of over \$330 million in bilateral aid disbursements to Commonwealth countries in the 1980-81 fiscal year and of Canada's contribution to the African, Asian and Caribbean Development Banks.



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